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IN THE UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS  
FOR THE NINTH CIRCUIT

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND BAKER  
AIRCRAFT SALES, INC.,

Appellants and Cross-Appellees,

v.

BETTY K. FURUMIZO, ET AL.,

Appellees and Cross-Appellants.

ON APPEAL FROM THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT  
FOR THE DISTRICT OF HAWAII

BRIEF FOR THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

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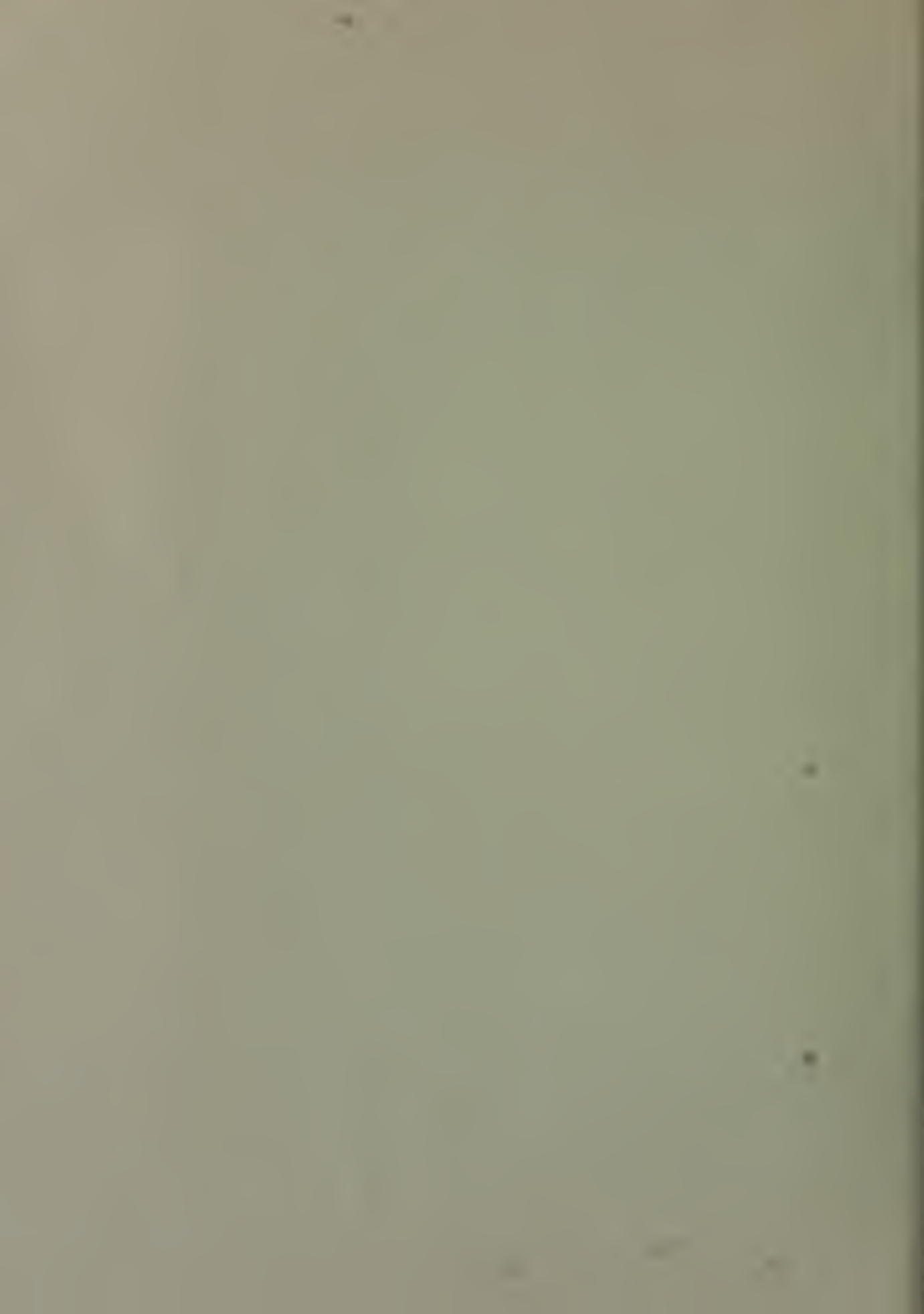
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IN THE UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS  
FOR THE NINTH CIRCUIT

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No. 20641

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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND BAKER  
AIRCRAFT SALES, INC.,

Appellants and Cross-Appellees,

v.

BETTY K. FURUMIZO, ET AL.,

Appellees and Cross-Appellants.

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ON APPEAL FROM THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT  
FOR THE DISTRICT OF HAWAII

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BRIEF FOR THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

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JURISDICTIONAL STATEMENT

This action was brought by Betty K. Furumizo, on her own  
alf and on behalf of Cynthia H. Furumizo, a minor, and as  
administratrix of the estate of Robert T. Furumizo, against  
United States of America, under the Federal Tort Claims Act,  
U.S.C. 1346(b), 2671, et seq. and against Baker Aircraft Sales,  
. , under 28 U.S.C. 1332, seeking to recover damages for the  
th of her husband in the amount of \$350,000. The district court,  
er trial on the merits, entered judgment for the plaintiffs in  
amount of \$221,580.39. Defendants' timely motions for a new

trial were denied on October 1, 1965. On November 26, 1965, the United States filed a notice of appeal and three days later Baker Aircraft Sales, Inc. filed its notice of appeal. That same day November 29, 1965, plaintiffs filed a notice of cross-appeal. Jurisdiction of this Court rests upon 28 U.S.C. 1291.

#### STATEMENT OF THE CASE

On June 19, 1961, plaintiffs' decedent, a student pilot, and Charles I. Shima, a flying instructor employed by defendant Baker Aircraft Sales, Inc. (hereinafter Baker), took off from Honolulu International Airport in a single-engine Piper Super Cub owned by Baker (Tr. 81, 84, R. 376).<sup>1/</sup> The purpose of the flight was to provide decedent with instructions concerning touch-and-go landings (Tr. 377). In this maneuver, the pilot "performs an approach and a landing [on a runway] and then, without stopping his landing roll, proceeds directly into [a] takeoff" (Tr. 1264).

During the ensuing half-hour, the Piper made a number of touch-and-go landings at the Honolulu field on runways 4 right and 4 left (Tr. 102, 978, R. 377). These runways are each 7000 feet in length and extend in a southwest-northeast direction, parallel

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<sup>1/</sup> "Tr." references are to the transcript of proceedings filed in this Court; "R." references are to the reproduced transcript of record, exclusive of the trial transcript; and "PX" references are to plaintiff's exhibits while "GX" references are to the Government's exhibits.



each other (PX-1).<sup>2/</sup> Each runway intersects the main east-west runway (number 8) at a 45 degree angle (PX-1). Runway 8 is 13,104 feet in length (PX-1).

While the Piper was in the process of making a touch-and-landing, it received the following transmission from the Honolulu control tower: PIPER NINE NINE ZULU MAKE THIS A FULL STOP HOLD SHORT OF EIGHT IF POSSIBLE (PX-5 transmission 9, Tr. 964).<sup>3/</sup> The Piper acknowledged the communication and stopped on runway 4 left, near the midfield taxi-strip, approximately 900 feet before the intersection of runways 4 left and 8 (Tr. 229, PX-1). The local control operator in the tower<sup>4/</sup> then cleared an Air Force T-33 trainer for take-off from runway 8 (PX-5 trans. #25, Tr. 94, 966). After the T-33 cleared the runway the local control operator told a Japan Air Lines DC-8 to taxi in position and hold at the end of runway 8 (Tr. 966). Baker's

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We were advised by the Clerk of the Court in a letter dated February 16, 1966, that the exhibits admitted into evidence by the court would not be reproduced but would be considered in their original form.

The Piper's identification number was N-3299Z (R. 377). The tower communicated with the aircraft by calling "NINE NINE ZULU" which are the last three numbers and letters in the Piper's identification number (PX-5).

In addition to the local control operator, Mr. Humphreys, there were three other controllers on duty in the tower at the time of the accident: the flight data operator, Mr. Krogh; the ground control operator, Mr. Cappellas; and the tower supervisor, Mr. Macchia (Tr. 923-924).

aircraft then received the following instruction from the tower:  
PIPER NINE NINE ZULU PULL AHEAD SLIGHTLY [TO] ALLOW DC THREE TO  
PASS BEHIND YOU (PX-5, trans. #28, Tr. 967). Thereafter, the  
DC-8 was advised by the tower that the wind was from the north-  
northeast at 6 knots and that it was cleared for take-off (PX-5  
trans. #30, Tr. 968-969). At that time, there were scattered  
clouds at 3000 feet and visibility was 15 miles (R. 377).

After making eight more transmissions to other aircraft  
in the area, the local controller cleared a Cessna 150, which was  
located on runway 4 left just north of the intersection of that  
runway and runway 8, for takeoff from 4 left (Tr. 973-974).  
Then an Air Force C-47, which was holding at the end of runway  
4 right, received the following transmission from the tower:  
AIR FORCE SIX THREE THREE EIGHT CAUTION TURBULENCE DEPARTING  
DC EIGHT CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF (PX-5 trans. #43, Tr. 317, 974).  
After issuing the warning and take-off clearance to the C-47,  
the controller stated: "PIPER NINE NINE ZULU CAUTION TURBULENCE  
DEPARTING DC-8 CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF" (PX-5 trans. # 44, Tr. 974).

The Piper aircraft, notwithstanding the turbulence warning  
it has just received, began its take-off roll immediately (Tr. 234  
1077). At that moment, the DC-8 was approximately two miles beyond  
the intersection of runways 4 left and 8 (Tr. 1069, 1077, PX-1).

5/ While the transmission might be construed as a warning alone  
the turbulence created by the DC-8 which had been cleared for take  
off, it was in fact a warning coupled with a clearance to the Piper

e Piper completed its take-off roll and initial climbout normally, but then began to climb "excessively nose high". (Tr. ). At an altitude of about 50 to 75 feet, the Piper "appeared stall," its right wing fell off to the right and the plane contacted the ground just short of the intersection of runways left and 8 (Tr. 95, 101). It was 6:56 p.m. local time, twenty minutes before sunset (R. 377).

The C-47 which had been cleared for take-off prior to the Piper, delayed its take-off some twenty to forty seconds, because the pilot wanted to wait for the turbulence generated by the DC-8 to subside (Tr. 317-318). It then began its take-off roll along runway 4 right. As the C-47 passed the intersection of runways right and 8, at an altitude of approximately 150 feet, the pilots saw the Piper on the ground burning (Tr. 321). The C-47 experienced moderate turbulence and continued on its flight (Tr. 321).

Plaintiffs instituted this action against the United States and Baker Aircraft Sales, Inc. claiming damages in the amount of \$50,000 (R. 13-15). Plaintiffs' theory of recovery was that the Piper took-off "directly into the 'jet wash' of a DC-8, which had previously taken off . . . thereby causing the [light] aircraft to crash" (R. 373). Plaintiffs alleged that the United States, through its employees, was negligent in failing to provide adequate safeguards for the protection of decedent from the hazards



f wake turbulence and in clearing the Piper for take-off directly into the wake turbulence of the DC-8 (R. 373). They also alleged that Baker Aircraft, through its employees Shima, was negligent in taking-off or allowing decedent to take-off directly into the jet wash of the DC-8 in spite of Shima's knowledge, as well as the warning, of the hazard involved. The Government denied plaintiffs' allegations and asserted that any damages to the plaintiffs was caused by the negligence of the instructor pilot employed by Baker (R. 27-28, 465).<sup>6/</sup>

After a lengthy trial, the district court (per Tavares, J.) entered judgment for the plaintiffs (R. 614). The court found, inter alia, that "the cause of the accident was turbulence caused by the departing DC-8" (R. 557); that defendant "Baker was negligent in not having furnished an instructor who was so fully aware of such dangers that he would have avoided taking off when and under the circumstances he did" (R. 559); and that the negligence of Baker was "a contributing cause" of the accident (R. 560). The court also found that the Government controllers "had a duty to exercise judgment to attempt to avoid danger where such danger was or should have been obviously imminent under the circumstances."

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Baker denied that any of its employees were negligent and contended that the damages were proximately caused by the negligence of the decedent (R. 375). In addition, Baker asserted a cross-claim against the Government contending that if it were held liable to the plaintiffs, it should have judgment against the United States for such amount or for contribution (R. 375).

. 561); and that here, they should have "attempted to hold the clearance a sufficient time to minimize the acute danger" to the Piper (R. 562). The court concluded that each defendant "should pay one half" of the \$221,580.39 judgment (R. 562).<sup>7/</sup> Thereafter, both defendants filed timely motions for new trial which were denied by the district court on October 1, 1965 (R. 694).

#### SPECIFICATIONS OF ERROR

1. The district court erred in failing to find that the negligence of Baker's flying instructor was the sole proximate cause of the accident involved herein.
2. The district court erred in finding the air traffic controllers negligent in the performance of their duties.

#### STATUTE AND REGULATIONS INVOLVED

The pertinent provisions of the Federal Tort Claims Act and the Civil Air Regulations are set forth in the appendix to this brief.

#### SUMMARY OF ARGUMENT

The record before this Court makes plain that the negligence of Baker's flying instructor superseded any alleged negligence of the part of the controllers and, additionally, that the instructor's negligence was the sole proximate cause of Mr. Furumizo's death.

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The district court's opinion is reported at 245 F. Supp. 981.



Thus, the judgment entered against the United States must be reversed. Moreover, wholly independent of any question as to the correctness of the district court's causation finding, the judgment must be reversed for the additional reason that the court erred in finding that the air traffic controllers were in any way negligent in the performance of their duties on the afternoon of June 19, 1961. The evidence in this case clearly establishes that the tower personnel fully and properly performed all the duties and responsibilities required of them at the time of the accident.

#### ARGUMENT

##### I. SCOPE OF REVIEW AND APPLICABLE PRINCIPLES OF LAW

###### A. Scope of review

This Court is, of course, justified in holding a trial court's finding of fact "clearly erroneous" under Rule 52(a) if, after reviewing all the evidence, it is left with a firm impression that error has been committed. Guzman v Pichirilo, 369 U.S. 98; United States v. United States Gypsum, supra; Dresser Industries v. Smith-Blair, Inc., 322 F. 2d 878, 881 (C.A. 9); Scott Publishing Co. v. Columbia Basin Publishers, Inc., 293 F. 2d 15, 20 (C.A. 9), certiorari denied, 368 U.S. 940.

And, quite apart from evidentiary matters, where findings of fact are induced by erroneous interpretations of the law, they are not binding on the reviewing court. Baumgartner v. United States

2 U.S. 665, 670-671; Island Service Co. v. Perez, 309 F. 2d 9, 804 (C.A. 9); United States v. Miller, 303 F. 2d 703, 9-710 (C.A. 9), certiorari denied, 371 U.S. 955; Davis v. Arkhill-Goodloe Co., 302 F. 2d 489, 491 (C.A. 5). Such findings cannot stand. Ibid.

B. General rules of tort law applicable to this case

The findings and conclusions of the district court must also be considered in light of the general principles of negligence law applicable to aviation. In the absence of special statutes the ordinary rules of tort law apply to aircraft accidents. United States v. Miller, 303 F. 2d 703 (C.A. 9), certiorari denied, 371 U.S. 955; see also Franklin v. United States, 342 F. 2d 581, 584 (C.A. 7), certiorari denied, 382 U.S. 844; United States v. Multetus, 277 F. 2d 322 (C.A. 5), certiorari denied, 364 U.S. 828. Since the accident in this case occurred in Hawaii, the substantive standard of negligence derives from the law of that State. 28 U.S.C. 16(b); Richards v. United States, 369 U.S. 1; Franklin v. United States, supra.

Under Hawaii law, as in all common-law jurisdictions, it is axiomatic that the essential elements of a cause of action in negligence are (a) the existence of a duty on the part of the defendant, (b) the negligent failure to perform that duty and (c) injury resulting directly from that failure. Medeiros v. Honomu Sugar Co., 21 Haw. 155, 159; see Carreira v. Territory of Hawaii,

0 Haw. 513, 518-519. Thus, before a defendant can be found to be negligent, it must first be determined that he owed some duty to the plaintiff. See Young v. Price, 47 Haw. 309, 314; Ciacchi v. Polley, 33 Haw. 247, 252-253. For, where there is no duty owed by the defendant, there can be no negligence on his part. Cf. Wax v. City and County of Honolulu, 34 Haw. 256, 257.

In addition, liability will not attach unless the plaintiff has shown not only that the defendant was negligent but that there was a causal connection between the negligent act and the damages which the plaintiff sustained. Carreira v. Territory of Hawaii, 40 Haw. 513, 518, 519; Ward v. Inter-Island Steam Navigation Co., 22 Haw. 66, 70-71. Where "there are two negligent acts by separate parties which seemingly lead to the injury, each may be held to be a contributing proximate cause . . . and liability may attach to both parties . . . [but,] if the negligent act of one is later in point of time, such act may be sufficient to interrupt the causal chain established by the other, in which case only the later act is the proximate cause and the party committing it is solely liable." Mitchell v. Branch and Hardy, 45 Haw. 128, 132; see also Wax v. City and County of Honolulu, supra.

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It is against this background that the district court's negligence and causation findings must be considered. We show now (in Point II, infra) that liability should not have attached against the United States since Mr. Furumizo's death was attributable solely to the negligence of flying instructor Shima. And, in Point I, infra, we show that there is a separate, independent reason for reversing the judgment against the United States in view of the fact that the district court clearly erred in finding the air traffic controllers negligent in the performance of their duties.

II. THE DISTRICT COURT ERRED IN HOLDING THE UNITED STATES LIABLE FOR MR. FURUMIZO'S DEATH, SINCE THE NEGLIGENCE OF BAKER'S FLYING INSTRUCTOR SUPERSEDED ANY ALLEGED NEGLIGENCE ON THE PART OF THE CONTROLLERS AND THE INSTRUCTOR'S NEGLIGENCE WAS THE SOLE, PROXIMATE CAUSE OF THE ACCIDENT

In the instant case, the district court found that the negligence of the air traffic controllers was "a contributing cause of the accident along with the negligence of defendant Baker in not furnishing in Shima an adequately informed and trained pilot, and . . . that each is equally liable" (R. 562). We submit, even if the Honolulu controllers were negligent in not withholding the take-off clearance as the district court concluded, the court below still erred in holding the United States liable for Furumizo's death. For, as we pointed out above (p.10 supra), under Hawaii law liability cannot attach against two defendants whose negligent acts seemingly lead to the plaintiff's injury, when the one negligent act is later in point of time and interrupts

the causal chain established by the other. In that situation, only the later act is the proximate cause of the injury and the party committing it is solely liable. Mitchell v. Branch and Hardy, 15 Haw. 128. The record in this case reveals that the instructor pilot was clearly negligent in taking-off into the wake of the departing DC-8, despite the warning from the tower, and that this negligence superseded any alleged negligence on the controllers' part and interrupted any chain of causation established by such negligence. The accident was attributable solely to flying instructor Shima's negligent act.

A. The duties and responsibilities of Baker's instructor pilot

Essential to a determination of pilot negligence is, of course, the existence of a duty on the part of Baker's flying instructor, Mr. Charles Shima. It should be pointed out, in this regard, that the duties and responsibilities of pilots of civilian aircraft, as of June 19, 1961, are set forth in the Civil Air Regulations, 14 C.F.R. 1, et seq. (1961 Rev.). These regulations, which are promulgated by the Administrator of the Federal Aviation Agency and have the force of law (United States v. Schultetus, 277 F. 2d 322, 327 (C.A. 5), certiorari denied, 364 U.S. 828) are divided into many parts, each governing a specific phase of civil aviation. One such part, the air traffic rules (14 C.F.R. 60 (1961 Rev.)),<sup>8/</sup> regulates air traffic as the title

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<sup>8/</sup> Unless otherwise specified, all "14 C.F.R. 60" references may be found in the 1961 Revision of 14 C.F.R.



plies. The rules provide, inter alia: (1) that the pilot in command of an aircraft -- who, in the case of the Piper, was flying instructor Shima (Tr. 497, 601, 603, 657) -- is "directly responsible for its operation and [he] shall have the final authority as to the operation of the aircraft" (14 C.F.R. 60.2); (2) that the pilot in command must, prior to the commencement of flight, familiarize himself with "all available information" which is appropriate to his flight (14 C.F.R. 60.11); (3) that a pilot may operate his aircraft in a "careless or reckless manner" and he must maintain vigilance to observe and avoid other aircraft (14 C.F.R. 60.12); (4) that, when on or in the vicinity of an airport where air traffic control is in operation, an aircraft must maintain contact with the control tower either visually or by radio (14 C.F.R. 60.18(b)) and (5) that under VFR weather conditions, it is the direct responsibility of the pilot to avoid other aircraft even when flying with a traffic clearance (14 C.F.R. 60.21-1, note).

The courts, in construing these Regulations, have held that under VFR weather conditions the ultimate responsibility for the safe operation of an aircraft rests with the pilot of that craft. United States v. Miller, 303 F. 2d 703, 710 (C.A. 9), certiorari denied, 371 U.S. 955; United States v. Schultetus, 277 F. 2d 322, 328 (C.A. 5), certiorari denied, 364 U.S. 828. The pilot has the duty of seeing and avoiding other air traffic. Franklin v. United States, 342 F. 2d 581 (C.A. 7), certiorari denied, 382 U.S. 844;

enninger v. United States, 234 F. Supp. 499 (D. Del.), affirmed 52 F. 2d 523 (C.A. 3). Indeed, according to the court in enninger, the airplane pilot has a duty to observe and avoid the turbulence generated by other larger aircraft and his failure to do so may constitute negligence on his part. 234 F. Supp. at 517.

The evidence establishes that at the time of the accident IFR weather conditions existed at the Honolulu airport (R. 377) and the Piper had been engaged in a VFR flight (Tr. 102, 978).<sup>9/</sup> Flying instructor Shima was thus dutybound to see and avoid other aircraft; he had the primary responsibility, as the pilot in command, for the safe operation of his aircraft. All the witnesses who testified on this matter acknowledged the fact that the Piper's pilot had these obligations (Tr. 601-603, 657, 1012, 1149, 1236, 1369). The question becomes, therefore, whether flying instructor Shima performed said duties with the care and diligence which a reasonably prudent instructor pilot would have exercised under similar circumstances.

B. Flying instructor Shima was negligent in failing to heed the warning given and in taking-off immediately

The uncontroverted evidence reveals that immediately after receiving the turbulence warning and the take-off clearance, the Piper aircraft began its take-off roll, climbed to an altitude of about 50 to 75 feet, rolled to its right and crashed at a point ju

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<sup>9/</sup> To be "engaged in a VFR flight" means that the aircraft's pilot is flying his plane visually.

port of the intersection of runways 4 left and 8 (Tr. 95, 101, PX-5, trans. 44). The Air Force C-47, which had been cleared for take-off prior to the Piper, waited an additional 20 to 40 seconds before beginning its take-off roll from runway 4 right (Tr. 317-318). The C-47 made a normal take-off and, as it passed over the intersection of runways 4 right and 8, at an altitude of 100 feet, the aircraft encountered moderate turbulence but continued its climb-out (Tr. 321). The co-pilot of the C-47, Colonel McCann, testified that the C-47's pilot (Colonel Garland) delayed taking off in order "to allow the turbulence to subside" (Tr. 317). Colonel McCann stated that the "decision to delay for a short time" was made by the C-47's pilot after receiving the following briefing and clearance from the tower -- "AIR FORCE SIX ~~THREE~~ THREE EIGHT CAUTION TURBULENCE DEPARTING D C EIGHT CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF" (PX-5 trans. #43, Tr. 320). It was, we submit, gross negligence for flying instructor Shima to take-off immediately, despite receiving an identical transmission from the tower -- "PIPER NINE NINE ZULU CAUTION TURBULENCE DEPARTING DC EIGHT CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF" (PX-5 trans. #44).

1. There can be no doubt that a reasonably prudent flying instructor would have delayed his take-off upon receiving such a briefing. Mr. Joseph Jones, the chief instructor for the largest flying school in the Hawaiian Islands, testified that if he were cleared for take-off and knew of the existence of turbulence in the take-off area, he would not "make the take-off" (Tr. 1337-1338).



When asked by Government counsel whether he would have taken-off immediately, had he (Jones) been the pilot of the Piper on June 19, 1961, knowing that which Shima knew (Tr. 1341), Mr. Jones stated that he would not have taken-off immediately as Shima had done (Tr. 1343). Moreover, Jones stated, if he had taken-off immediately after being cleared, he would have kept the Piper "on the ground until it was past runway 8, where the heavy aircraft had taken-off [from]" (Tr. 1343).

Mr. George Carter, who was general manager of Shima's employer at the time of the accident and a licensed pilot, testified that if he were in a light airplane on runway 4 left and a large aircraft had just taken-off from runway 8, he would not take-off immediately but would "hold" his aircraft (Tr. 1445). It is noteworthy that the situation posed to Carter did not include a turbulence warning (Tr. 1445). Mr. Carter also stated that he has delayed taking-off in an aircraft "many times" after being cleared to perform this maneuver, because of turbulence generated by another aircraft (Tr. 862-863). He did not indicate whether, in those instances, he had received a warning of turbulence from the tower (Tr. 862-863).

Mr. Carter further testified that pilots are not required to take-off upon receiving a take-off clearance; they may refuse the clearance (Tr. 862). Mr. E. J. Kay, the chief flying instructor at Shima's employer, agreed (Tr. 588-589). He testified that the pilot in command of the aircraft is responsible for the acceptance

a clearance (Tr. 601-602). Should the pilot feel that the maneuver for which he has been cleared might be unsafe, he can use the clearance and "ask for a delay . . . of a specified amount of time (Tr. 588-589).<sup>10/</sup>

2. Certainly, the pilot in command of the Piper could not have believed that the transmission from the tower, clearing his aircraft for take-off, was a command to take-off immediately, especially since the transmission included a warning of a potentially unsafe condition created by the preceding aircraft (PX-5 trans. # 44).

The Piper's pilot was not the ordinary run-of-the-mill licensed private pilot who might have viewed a clearance as a command (See page 24 , n.12 infra). Mr. Shima was a professional pilot, one who earned his living both as a charter pilot, flying planes inter-island for the Andrew Flying Service, and as an instructor pilot, teaching students who attended defendant-Baker's flight school (Tr. 592, 794). As a licensed pilot, he would have been familiar with the Civil Air Regulations, including Section 60.60 thereof, which points out that clearances are not mandatory in nature (See p. 25 , infra). He would also have been familiar with the Flight Information Manual which plainly states that a "clearance . . . is permissive in nature" (GX-6, p. 82). (See p. 25 infra).

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It is significant, we believe, that air traffic controllers expect pilots to refuse take-off clearances occasionally and, in addition, to make the final decision as to when, and from where, to take-off (Tr. 269, 998, 1237, 1332, 1369, 1429).



According to Baker's general manager, that Manual was readily available to Mr. Shima and the other instructor pilots employed by the flying school (Tr. 879). Finally, as a flying instructor, Mr. Shima would have had to instruct his students on the matter of the non-mandatory nature of air traffic clearances (Tr. 832). Thus, the Piper's pilot must have been aware, when he received the warning and clearance from the tower, that he was not required to take-off immediately. Had the tower controller wanted him to take-off without delay, he would have issued the following transmission: "CLEARED FOR IMMEDIATE TAKE-OFF" (GX-5, \$439.11).

3. That Mr. Shima knew or should have known of the danger of flying into the turbulent wake of the DC-8 is clear from the record. His employer's chief flying instructor, Mr. Kay, specifically testified that he had "trained Mr. Shima" (Tr. 592) and that Shima was aware of the dangers of wake turbulence (Tr. 626). There is no evidence in the record controverting Mr. Kay's testimony.

Furthermore, even if Shima was unaware of the problem, the overwhelming evidence is to the effect that he should have known of the danger of wake turbulence. For, it was stipulated, that, as of the date of the accident, "[t]he existence of the potential hazards of turbulent wake of large aircraft to smaller aircraft was a matter of 'common knowledge' in the flying industry . . ." (R. 1). Indeed, Shima must have been examined on the subject of wake turbulence prior to receiving his pilot's license and also during

course of the oral examination given by the FAA to those  
pilot students desiring to be flying instructors (Tr. 601).

Aside from the numerous publications which were issued  
prior to the accident warning pilots not to fly into the wakes  
of large aircraft (See GX-2, GX-3, GX-11, PX-15, PX-36), the  
pilot's handbook (the Flight Information Manual, GX-6), which was  
available to Shima (Tr. 879), informed pilots of the hazards  
of wake turbulence and advised them to be "on the alert" for  
wake turbulence "when taking-off and landing behind large aircraft"  
(1250-1251). Moreover, since it was a universal practice  
among flying schools to instruct students on the dangers of  
wake turbulence (Tr. 1331) and, inasmuch as Baker's students  
received instruction on this subject (Tr. 572), Mr. Shima must  
have been familiar with the wake turbulence problem, being a  
long time instructor employed by Baker. Certainly, if there had  
been any doubt in his mind as to turbulence danger the specific  
advisory warning from the tower fully alerted him to that danger.

4. In sum, the Piper's pilot was warned of the existence  
of the turbulence generated by the DC-8. Furthermore, he knew  
he should have known of the danger involved in flying into  
wake turbulence in his Piper aircraft. Yet, he decided to  
ignore the warning and take-off immediately instead of pursuing  
one of the other courses of action available to him. In so doing,  
he plainly failed to exercise that degree of care which a  
reasonably prudent instructor pilot would have done under similar

circumstances. The district court plainly erred, therefore, in not finding this failure on Shima's part to be negligent.

C. Shima's negligence was the sole, proximate cause of Furumizo's death

We demonstrated above (pp.14-20 supra) that the flying instructor was negligent in taking-off immediately despite the warning issued by the tower. Unquestionably, his negligent act was later in point of time than the conduct of the tower controllers which the district court found to be negligent (R. 562). The question still remains, however, as to whether the flying instructor's action breaks any chain of causation established by the controllers' alleged negligence (See page supra). According to the Hawaii Supreme Court, this turns on whether the later act of negligence, i.e., Shima's taking-off immediately, was reasonably foreseeable or not. If it was not, then the reviewing court may hold, as a matter of law, that the chain of causation established by earlier negligent act was broken by the later one. Mitchell v. Branch and Hardy, 45 Haw. 128.

The Honolulu controllers had no reason to believe that Mr. Shima would ignore the warning given him and take-off immediately. Indeed, they had every reason to believe that Shima would heed the warning and wait until the turbulence from the DC-8 had subsided, as the C-47's pilot had done, until beginning the take-off roll. In this regard, chief controller Garcia testified that, on many occasions prior to the accident, he had issued absolute clearance



ht aircraft, waiting to take-off from runways 4 left and 4  
ht, when heavy aircraft were taking-off from runway 8, and  
t the light aircraft delayed their taking-off therefrom or  
ir pilots refused the clearance given (Tr. 1041). The only  
er Honolulu tower controller who testified at the trial  
. Capellas) stated that prior to the accident pilots had  
asionally refused clearances issued by him (Tr. 148). Both  
trollers understood clearances to be merely permissive in  
ure and they assumed that pilots were aware of this fact  
. 237, 269, 998, 1012). Had they wanted Shima to take-off  
ediately, they would have, in accordance with the controller's  
ual (GX-5, \$439.12), issued a clearance to that effect.  
Clearly, Shima's reckless action could not have been foreseen.  
s, even if the controllers were negligent, in issuing the critical  
nsmission when they did, any chain of causation established  
their action was broken by Shima's intervening act. His decision  
take-off into the wake of the DC-8, in spite of the warning  
ued by the tower, was the sole, proximate cause of Mr. Furumizo's  
th. Mitchell v. Branch and Hardy, supra.

III. THE DISTRICT COURT ALSO ERRED IN FINDING THAT THE  
HONOLULU TOWER CONTROLLERS WERE NEGLIGENT IN THE  
PERFORMANCE OF THEIR DUTIES AT THE HONOLULU AIRPORT  
AT THE TIME OF THE ACCIDENT INVOLVED HEREIN

The district court also found that the Honolulu controllers  
uld have "attempted to exercise their reasonable judgment and  
empted to hold up the clearance a sufficient time to minimize

the acute danger" to the Piper which existed by virtue of the turbulence generated by the DC-8 and that "this failure to exercise any judgment under the circumstances constituted negligence on . . . [their] part" (R. 562). We submit, and now show, that the lower court erred in so finding and that, as a result, there is a separate, independent basis for reversing the judgment entered against the United States.

A. The transmission to Piper was a conditional, not absolute, clearance for take-off

The district court, in finding the Honolulu controller negligent, stated that the tower operators should have exercised "their reasonable judgment" and "[held] up the clearance" to the Piper until the turbulence danger had passed (R. 562). But this finding was based on the notion that, when the local controller said to the Piper's pilot "PIPER NINE NINE ZULU CAUTION TURBULENCE DEPARTING DC-EIGHT CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF" (PX-5 trans. # 44), this transmission meant that the Piper aircraft was authorized, from that moment on, to initiate its take-off roll. There is, however, absolutely no support for that notion. Indeed, it is squarely refuted by the actual text of the transmission message.

Had the Honolulu controller merely told the Piper's pilot that his aircraft were "cleared for take-off," the Piper would, unquestionably, have had authority to begin its take-off roll any time thereafter (See n.12 , p. 24-25 , infra). But, in the instant case, the controller did not issue such an absolute



clearance to the Piper's pilot. Rather, the clearance issued to Piper aircraft was a qualified one, that is, the Piper was authorized take-off only after its pilot determined that the turbulence created by the DC-8 had subsided. In other words, the court had issued a conditional clearance to the Piper; the clearance did not become effective until the Piper's pilot was convinced that the turbulence danger had passed. Thus, contrary to the court's finding, the Honolulu controllers had, in fact, "held up" the issuance of the clearance to the Piper. Its negligence finding cannot, therefore, stand.

B. No duty on controllers to delay issuance of take-off clearance because of turbulence danger

Even if the transmission discussed above were deemed not to be a conditional clearance to take-off, the lower court's negligence finding must still be overturned. For, that finding is grounded on the premise that control tower operators have a duty to lengthen the separation between departing aircraft, by withholding the second craft's take-off clearance, when there is a danger that it will encounter wake turbulence. There is no basis, we submit, for the court's imposition of such an obligation on controllers.<sup>11/</sup>

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Section 26.26 of the Civil Air Regulations provides that tower operators "shall control [air] traffic in accordance with the procedures and practices . . . prescribed in the appropriate air traffic manuals of the Federal Aviation Agency . . ." 14 C.F.R. 26.26 (61 Rev.). These manuals have been described by this Court as "bible for tower operators." United States v. Miller, 303 F. 2d 710, n. 16, certiorari denied, 371 U.S. 955. The manual used (continued)

1. It is apparent from a reading of the district court's opinion that the lower court imposed on controllers a duty to delay issuing clearances in wake turbulence situations because it believed, "a pilot or pilots in a small plane like the Piper . . . might interpret the clearance as . . . [a] command for immediate take-off" and, in complying with the "command", expose himself or themselves to an "enormous hazard" (R. 598 ).<sup>12/</sup> And, according to the court below, the tower personnel "should have . . . anticipated" that such pilots might have viewed a clearance in this light (R. 598). The district court clearly erred in this regard since controllers had every reason to believe, as of the date of this accident, that licensed pilots -- and certainly flying instructors -- understood that air traffic clearances were permissive in nature.

It is undisputed that, in order to be licensed as a private

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11/ Continued

by tower personnel, as of the date of the accident, is commonly referred to as the ATM-2-A Manual (Tr. 268). That manual (GX-5) sets forth the various duties and responsibilities of air traffic controllers as of June 19, 1961. See Hartz v. United States, 249 F. Supp. 119, 123 (N.D. Ga.) (a notice of appeal has been filed in that case).

The Manual contains no provision to the effect that controllers must lengthen the separation between departing aircraft in wake turbulence situations (GX-5). Rather, it provides that "when controllers foresee the possibility that departing aircraft might encounter -- thrust stream turbulence or wing tip vortices from preceding aircraft" they should issue "cautionary information to this effect . . . to the pilots concerned" (GX-5 §411.7). The incident involved in this case clearly comes within this proviso. (See pages 32-33, infra).

<sup>12/</sup> The court below did recognize, however, that an air traffic clearance is "a mere authorization and not a command" (Tr. 597).

(Continued)

ot by the FAA, one had to pass an examination on the Civil  
Regulations and, in particular, on Part 60 thereof (Tr. 860).  
is also undisputed that FAA approved flying schools, like that  
rated by defendant-Baker, are required to instruct their  
dents on the Civil Air Regulations (Tr. 853). Among the  
ulations which licensed pilots should have been familiar  
h therefore, is Section 60.60 which states that an air traffic  
arance is an "[a]uthorization by air traffic control . . . for  
aircraft to proceed under specified traffic conditions . . ."  
C.F.R. 60.60 (1961 Rev.). In addition, the Flight Information  
ual states that "a clearance issued by a tower (such as 'cleared  
land') either by radio or visual signal is permissive in nature  
does not relieve the pilot from exercising a reasonable degree  
caution . . ." (GX-6, p. 82). Since this manual was considered  
be the pilot's "handbook" (Tr. 271), licensed pilots should  
e known that clearances issued by tower personnel were not  
the nature of a command to execute some maneuver.

Significantly, the controllers who testified in the court  
ow were of the belief that, after issuing a take-off clearance  
an aircraft, it was then up to the pilot to decide what action  
take (Tr. 998, 1012, 1149). They believed that the pilot could

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re can be no doubt that a clearance to take-off is permissive  
nature; a pilot is not required to take-off immediately upon  
eiving the communication. See New York Airways, Inc. v. United  
tes, 283 F. 2d 496 (C.A. 2); Khourey v. American Airlines, Inc.,  
Ohio St. 310, 164 N.E. 2d 402; see also United States v. Miller,  
ra, at p. 710.



refuse a clearance (Tr. 148, 1041, 1321), that he had authority to request a change in the clearance (Tr. 269, 1250) and that, once cleared for take-off from a particular point on a runway, he was free to taxi back and use the entire runway for his take-off (Tr. 237, 249, 1038). Their views on this matter were shared by the several pilots who testified in the lower court (Baker's chief flying instructor, Tr. 588, 593, 599, 641-642, 667; Baker's general manager, Tr. 832, 840, 841, 862; and flying instructor Jones, Tr. 1332, 1338).<sup>13/</sup>

There is, therefore, no basis for the court's finding (R. 598) that the Honolulu tower personnel "should have . . . anticipated that a pilot or pilots in a small plane like the Piper . . . might interpret the clearances as [a] . . . command for immediate take-off . . ." Indeed, the evidence discussed above compels a holding to the contrary, especially in view of the fact that the clearance was coupled with a warning of the existence of wake turbulence in the take-off area.<sup>14/</sup> Since the lower court

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<sup>13/</sup> The pilots' Flight Information Manual instructs pilots "to bear in mind that they have the authority to ask for a change in clearance" (GX-6, p. 82). Mr. Carmody, the air traffic control specialist, testified, in this connection, that he never encountered a pilot who didn't know that he had the right to request a change in a clearance (Tr. 1250).

<sup>14/</sup> In determining that many pilots do not understand the nature of a clearance, the lower court relied, apparently, on certain statements made by Baker's general manager, Mr. George Carter and plaintiff exhibit 19 (R. 590-591). To be sure, Mr. Carter had testified that in his opinion, many pilots were under the impression that a clearance was in the nature of a command (Tr. 832). But, in light of the evidence discussed above (pp. 24-26, supra), we submit that it was unreasonable for the court to infer from this statement that the tower operators should have anticipated that the Piper's pilot

(Continued)



position of a duty to delay was based, in part, on the court's erroneous belief regarding air traffic clearances, its duty finding cannot be sustained.

2. In concluding that controllers must do more than issue warning in wake turbulence situations, but must make certain that no aircraft takes-off until the wake turbulence danger has passed, the district court has, in effect, shifted the ultimate responsibility for the safe operation of aircraft from the licensed pilot to the FAA tower personnel. The courts, however, have consistently held that the direct and primary responsibility for the safe operation of an aircraft rests, not with the controllers, but with the aircraft pilot. United States v. Miller, 383 F. 2d 703, 710 (C.A. 9), certiorari denied, 371 U.S. 955; United States v. Schultetus, 277 F. 2d 322, 326 (C.A. 5), certiorari denied, 364 U.S. 828; Wenninger v. United States, 234 F. Supp. 499, 506-517 (D. Del.), aff'd., 352 F. 2d 523 (C.A. 3); Smerdon v. United States, 135 F. Supp. 929, 931-932 (D. Mass.).

In United States v. Miller, supra, this Court reversed the decision of the lower court, which had held the United States

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any other pilot might construe the clearance issued as a command. With respect to plaintiff's exhibit 19 (CAR Draft Release 0-1), we note that that document was merely a notice of proposed rule-making and that the rules proposed therein were never promulgated by the agency (Tr.1198-1199). In any event, it does not support the court's finding that many pilots viewed a clearance as a command or an order to execute some maneuvers (PX-19).

liable for the negligence of its control tower personnel in failing to prevent ~~the~~ mid-air collision between a Beechcraft and a Cessna within an FAA controlled zone. The Court, in holding the Beechcraft's pilot negligent, stated, that "the focal point of ultimate responsibility for the safe operation of an aircraft under VFR weather conditions rests with the pilot. Under such conditions, he is obligated to observe and avoid other traffic even if he is flying with a traffic clearance." 303 F. 2d at 710.<sup>15/</sup> The tower controller, on the other hand, "is merely [required] to assist the pilot in the performance of his duties, not to relieve him of those duties." 303 F. 2d at 711.

Similarly, in Schultetus, the Fifth Circuit held, with respect to the district court's finding that certain controllers were negligent in failing to instruct a pilot to alter his course so as to avoid colliding with another aircraft, that:

The theory followed by the district court would place upon the operators of control towers the primary responsibility for the operation of aircraft at the field. Governmental regulations, having the force of law, have assigned this responsibility to the operators of aircraft.

In addition, the court of appeals stated that the lower court erred in finding that the tower operators negligently failed to maintain proper spacing between two aircraft within the control zone. The

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<sup>15/</sup> The weather at the time of the accident involved herein was such that visual flight rules were in effect (R. 377).

lth Circuit noted (277 F. 2d at 327):

Here again the district court has overlooked the principle that the direct and primary responsibility for the operation of aircraft over or in the vicinity of an airport rests upon the pilots of the aircraft. We are of the belief that in this respect also the district court was in error.

And in Wenninger v. United States, supra, in which plaintiffs' decedent was killed when his aircraft crashed allegedly as a result of encountering wake turbulence generated by an Air Force C-124, the trial court ruled that decedent's failure to observe and avoid the C-124's turbulence constituted negligence on his part. The court, citing this Court's decision in Miller, stated that "[u]nder VFR weather conditions, the ultimate responsibility for the safe operation of an aircraft rests with the pilot. He is under a duty to see and avoid other traffic even if flying with a traffic clearance." 234 F. Supp. at 516-517.

Recently, the District Court for the Northern District of Georgia had occasion to pass on the very question involved in this case. Hartz v. United States, 249 F. Supp. 119. There, as here, the plaintiffs had contended that the tower operator "should have delayed the take-off clearance [issued to the Beech Bonanza] so as to permit the vortex turbulence [created by the departing DC-7] to dissipate." 249 F. Supp. at 125. The court, relying on the cases discussed above, refused to impose such a duty on the air traffic controllers, reasoning that (Ibid.):



[T]he ultimate responsibility for the take-off at that or any other time rests with the pilot; the pilot, not the controller, was in position to delay his take-off if he felt it to be his benefit to do so.

For the same reasons, we believe, it was clear error for the court below to impose a duty to delay on the Honolulu controller.

Were the lower court's duty finding to stand, this would, in effect, make the Government an insurer of flight safety. To be sure, the controller is required to perform his duties fully and properly, but this does not require him to warn one aircraft of the presence of another craft in the control zone when no danger of collision between the two existed (Franklin v. United States, et al., supra), nor warn an aircraft of danger from helicopter wake turbulence when the helicopter turbulence problem was then unknown to the aviation industry (Franklin v. United States, supra), nor give a general warning signal to the pilot of one aircraft concerning the presence of another in the control zone when the latter knew of the presence of the former (United States v. Schul supra), nor determine whether a particular weather condition is safe enough for an aircraft to land when the pilot of the craft has been fully advised thereof (Smerdon v. United States, 135 F. Supp.

16/ It must be remembered that "an air traffic controller is not supposed to give his attention to any one aircraft in the control zone if other aircraft are present. All aircraft within the control zone should have the controller's attention." Franklin v. United States, 342 F. 2d 581 (C.A. 7), certiorari denied, 382 U.S. 844; see also New York Airways, Inc. v. United States, 283 F. 2d 496, 498.



, 923 (D. Mass.)), nor observe a small aircraft enter the  
troll zone on a hazy day when the aircraft had made no radio  
tact with the tower (Stanley v. United States, 239 F. Supp.  
(N.D. Ohio).<sup>17/</sup> By the same token, we do not believe that an  
traffic controller is required, after warning a pilot of the  
turbulence danger, to delay clearing the pilot's aircraft for  
take-off until that danger has passed. It is the pilot's  
responsibility alone to decide when to initiate the take-off.

C. No breach of any duty owed by the government controllers

The evidence before this Court clearly establishes that  
control tower operators performed all the duties required  
of them under the circumstances and that they performed  
them in a reasonable and proper manner. The record reveals  
that as the Piper was in the process of executing a touch-and-go  
landing on runway 4 left, it was instructed by local control  
toller Humphreys<sup>18/</sup> to make " . . . A FULL STOP [AND] TO HOLD  
SHORT OF [RUNWAY] EIGHT IF POSSIBLE" (PX-5 trans. # 19, Tr. 964).

The court below appears to rely (R. 573) on Johnson v. United States, 183 F. Supp. 489 (E.D. Mich.) which involved the crash of a light aircraft that had been cleared to land at a FAA controlled airport at which a B-47 jet bomber had been making practice approaches. The court held that the proximate cause of the crash was the failure of the light aircraft's pilot to execute the proper traffic pattern. The court indicated that the tower operator should have taken into consideration the effect of the turbulence created by the B-47 in issuing the clearance to land. Since the court denied the plaintiffs any recovery because of the negligence of the light aircraft's pilot, the court's duty statement is plainly dictum.

Mr. Humphreys did not testify at the trial, having died prior to the trial (Tr. 926-927). He received his instructions from chief controller Garcia (Tr. 231, 984).

The Piper was so instructed because an Air Force T-33 and a Japan Airlines DC-8 were about to depart from the airport on runway 8 (Tr. 92, 964). The Piper acknowledged the transmission and stopped on runway 4 left, near the midfield taxi strip, some 900 feet south of the intersection of runways 4 left and 8 (Tr. 8229, PX-1).

After issuing instructions and information to other aircraft in the control zone the tower cleared the T-33 for immediate take-off and shortly thereafter cleared the Japan Airlines DC-8 for take-off (Tr. 966-969, PX-5). Nine transmissions later, the local control operator cleared a Cessna 150, located on runway 4 left just north of the intersection of runways 4 left and 8, for take-off from 4 left (Tr. 973-974). Then, the controller advised the C-47, located at the end of runway 4 right: "AIR FORCE SIX THREE EIGHT CAUTION TURBULENCE DEPARTING DC EIGHT CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF" (PX-5 trans. # 43, Tr. 974). Thereafter, defendant-Baker's aircraft received the following transmission from the tower:

"PIPER NINE NINE ZULU CAUTION TURBULENCE DEPARTING DC-EIGHT CLEARED FOR TAKE-OFF" (Tr. 974, PX-5). At the moment the warning and clearance were given to the Piper, the DC-8 was airborne just beyond the end of runway 8 (Tr. 984, 1077).<sup>19/</sup> Upon receiving the transmission

<sup>19/</sup> Apparently, Mr. Humphreys had issued the warning and clearance to the Air Force C-47 just after the airborne DC-8 had passed the intersection of runway 4 right (Tr. 1076).

m the tower, the Piper -- unlike the C-47 (Tr. 317-318) -- immediately began its take-off roll (Tr. 234, 1077). At this point, the DC-8 was south of Sand Island, on a heading of 150 degrees, approximately 2 miles beyond the intersection of runways 8 and 4 left (Tr. 1069, 1077, PX-1).

Thus, the separation between the Piper and the DC-8, at the time the Piper received the clearance, was greater than the minimum prescribed in the air traffic controller's Manual (Section 422.2, 5) for two departing aircraft.<sup>20/</sup> And, at the time the Piper began take-off roll, the distance between the two aircraft was substantially greater (PX-1). Moreover, the chief controller fully complied with Section 411.7 of the Manual (GX-5) when, in foreseeing the possibility of the Piper encountering the turbulence created by the DC-8, he instructed the local controller to issue cautionary information regarding such turbulence to the Piper (Tr. 995). In accordance with the phraseology recommended in the controller's Manual (Section 439.1Q), the local controller issued the turbulence warning and then, since no collision hazard existed, cleared the aircraft for take-off subject to that warning (Tr. 974).<sup>21/</sup>

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The district court stated, in its opinion, that it agreed with the contention of the plaintiffs and defendant Baker that, at the time of the accident, neither the applicable laws and rules nor any regulations or directives of the aviation authorities of the United States government prescribed any separation standards for runways that intersect" (R. 592). The court's determination is contrary not only to the uncontroverted testimony of the air traffic controller, but also to the testimony of controllers Cappellas and Garcia (Tr. 243, 1166-1167).

On pages 24-26 supra, we showed that a clearance is not a command to do something, but rather an authorization to do it.



Certainly, it cannot be said that the Honolulu tower controllers breached any duty owed to Messrs. Shima or Furumizo. The fact that the pilot in command of the Piper "elected" to take off immediately (Tr. 234) does not, in any way, establish negligence in the conduct of any of the government controllers.

#### CONCLUSION

For the foregoing reasons, we respectfully submit that the judgment entered against the United States should be reversed.

Respectfully submitted,

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June 1966.

#### CERTIFICATE OF COMPLIANCE

I certify that, in connection with the preparation of this brief, I have examined Rules 18 and 19 of the United States Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit, and that, in my opinion, the foregoing brief is in full compliance with those rules.

Lawrence R. Schneider  
LAWRENCE R. SCHNEIDER  
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## APPENDIX

1. The Federal Tort Claims Act, 62 Stat. 933, 982, as amended, 28 U.S.C. 1346(b), 2671, et seq., provides in pertinent :

28 U.S.C. 1346(b):

Subject to the provisions of chapter 171 of this title, the district courts, together with the United States District Court for the District of the Canal Zone and the District Court of the Virgin Islands, shall have exclusive jurisdiction of civil actions on claims against the United States, for money damages, accruing on and after January 1, 1945, for injury or loss of property, or personal injury or death caused by the negligent or wrongful act or omission of any employee of the Government while acting within the scope of his office or employment, under circumstances where the United States, if a private person, would be liable to the claimant in accordance with the law of the place where the act or omission occurred.

2. The Civil Air Regulations (14 C.F.R. 1, et seq. 1 Rev.)) provide in pertinent part:

§60.1 Scope. The air traffic rules in this part shall apply to aircraft operated anywhere in the United States, including the several States, the District of Columbia, and the several Territories and possessions of the United States, including the territorial waters and the overlying airspace thereof,

\* \* \* \* \*

§60.2 Authority of the pilot. The pilot in command of the aircraft shall be directly responsible for its operation and shall have final authority as to operation of the aircraft.

\* \* \* \* \*

§60.10 Application.

Aircraft shall be operated at all times in compliance with the following general flight rules and also in compliance with either the visual flight rules or the instrument

flight rules, whichever are applicable.

§60.11 Preflight action.

Before beginning a flight, the pilot in command of the aircraft shall familiarize himself with all available information appropriate to the intended operation. Preflight action for flights away from the vicinity of an airport, and for all IFR flights, shall include a careful study of available current weather reports and forecasts, taking into consideration fuel requirements, an alternate course of action if the flight cannot be completed as planned, and also any known traffic delays of which he has been advised by air traffic control.

§60.12 Careless or reckless operation.

No person shall operate an aircraft in a careless or reckless manner so as to endanger the life or property of others.

§60.21-1 Air traffic clearance<sup>3/</sup> (FAA policies which apply to §60.21).

(a) When an air traffic clearance has been obtained under either VFR or IFR rules, the pilot in command may not deviate from the provisions thereof unless an amended clearance is obtained or an emergency exists. Pilots desiring to make a change in altitude, route, or destination should request the change from an appropriate communications facility and receive Air Traffic Control approval prior to making the change.

3/ An air traffic clearance is an authorization by Air Traffic Control for an aircraft to proceed under specified traffic conditions within a control zone or control area. It is issued for the purpose of preventing collision between aircraft known to Air Traffic Control and does not constitute authority to violate any provision of the CAR. \* \* \* \*.

An air traffic clearance provides separation from other aircraft only during that portion of a flight conducted in weather conditions less than VFR minimums. It is the direct responsibility of the pilots to avoid other aircraft when flying in VFR conditions even with a traffic clearance. \* \* \* \*.

## §60.60 Definitions.

As used in this part, terms shall be defined as follows:

\* \* \* \* \*

Air traffic. Aircraft in operation anywhere in the airspace and on that area of an airport normally used for the movement of aircraft.

Air traffic clearance. Authorization by air traffic control, for the purpose of preventing collision between known aircraft, for an aircraft to proceed under specified traffic conditions within controlled space.

Air traffic control. A service operated by appropriate authority to promote the safe, orderly, and expeditious flow of air traffic.

\* \* \* \* \*

VFR. The symbol used to designate visual flight rules.

VFR conditions. Weather conditions equal to or above the minimum prescribed for flights under VFR.

